



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

a useless burden to society. The number of persons of this description in the United States, is already alarmingly great ; and must be daily increasing. Among them are thousands and tens of thousands, once distinguished for talents, enterprise, industry and activity ; who entered upon life with high hopes and flattering prospects. Many of these have so long been the victims of anxiety and disappointment, that their habits of industry are now lost—their spirit of enterprise is broken down, and their talents are dissipated. But this is not the worst. Many—very many, it is to be feared, have been living from day to day, upon property not their own ; and which they have hid from the view of creditors, to whom it belongs, by the veil of fraud and prevarication, till their moral feelings have become blunted, and the bread of dishonesty has lost its bitter taste. But yet there are many others, whom a bankrupt law would awaken to new life, and restore to their wonted pursuits, with most of their former hopes and all their former capacities for usefulness.

ART. III.—*A Geographical Dictionary, or Universal Gazetteer ; Ancient and Modern. By J. E. Worcester, A. M.* 2 vols. 8vo. Andover, Flaggs & Gould, 1817.

It is remarkable that a people, who have so extensive an intercourse as we have with foreign nations, and who universally feel a strong interest in the history and politicks of every country, should be so deficient as we are, in geographical knowledge. A moderate acquaintance with geography is one of the rudiments of general education. Without it, many other studies cannot be advantageously prosecuted, and much of the intercourse of common life cannot be profitably carried on. It is more particularly necessary to the successful study of history, for all writers of history suppose their readers to be competently versed in a branch of education so obviously important.

The people of this country are perhaps not particularly attached to the study of general history ; but it is certainly a trait of their character, to be curious and anxious about the history of their own times. We are a news-seeking people, and a very large proportion of the reading of the great body of our countrymen consists of the news of the day, and a great part of their study is in investigating and digesting the con-

fused and imperfect accounts of recent events in all parts of the world, as they are presented, without connexion or explanation, in the newspapers. It is studies of this sort, that a knowledge of geography serves more particularly to facilitate, than any other. Yet of this study, which seems so peculiarly appropriate to us, we are of all people the most generally ignorant.

The principal cause of our neglect of this branch of education is probably the deficiency of our means for becoming accomplished in it. We have suffered greatly, for want of suitable elementary books in geography and statisticks. The political condition of the world has been for many years past so unstable, that no man, who valued his reputation, has been willing to undertake the labour of giving a satisfactory view of the geography of the day. The consequence has been, that all the treatises of universal geography, which have been published in the English language, have assumed, as a groundwork, the state of the world as it was described many years ago ; and those who have, from time to time, attempted to accommodate them to existing circumstances, have been grossly incompetent to the task.

Most of our own publications on European geography are very imperfect compilations from English works ; and the English have been, for many years past, very far behind their continental neighbours in knowledge on this subject. The Germans have so far excelled us in this department of knowledge, that the best geography of our own country has been published by them, and in a language which few of us understand. There are many compendious treatises of geography in common use in our schools ; but most of them are poor abridgments of very imperfect originals, compiled by persons entirely ignorant of the sources of correct and authentick information.

In this state of this department of knowledge among us, it is gratifying to find a work of this description undertaken by a person in any measure competent to the task, and with a degree of industry that can entitle him to success. If he has not been fully successful, his failure ought to be attributed to the magnitude of the undertaking, to the peculiarly difficult period at which he undertook it, and to the impossibility of obtaining at that time, in this country, a great portion of the proper materials for the work.

Before proceeding to a particular examination of this work, it may be proper to give a brief sketch of the principal geographical changes, which have taken place since the compila-

tion of the standard works in common use among us, and since the date of a great part of the knowledge which most of us possess on this subject. A full history of these changes is much wanted. The general sketch, which the present occasion will admit of, will not supply the deficiency, yet it may be of some use to our readers.

In this sketch, it will be necessary to go back to the period of the commencement of the French revolution, in the year 1789. The political state of Europe,—the most important portion of the world,—at this period, is familiar to all readers. The states, which then existed, had grown old without having sustained any material change, and it had been for a long succession of years, deemed essential to the safety of the whole, that the distribution of territories between them, as it then subsisted, should not be disturbed. The conquests of a powerful state were checked by the envy of its powerful neighbours, and the weak were protected for the benefit of the strong. The states of Europe, as then constituted, had, in consequence, acquired a stability and permanency, which rendered their condition and character susceptible of being studied and understood. But since that period, greater changes have been made in the space of a single year, than had been before recorded during a century.

Europe at this period was divided between twenty six independent governments, consisting of two elective monarchies, seventeen hereditary monarchies or principalities, and seven republicks. In this enumeration, the German Empire is considered as one government. These twenty six states, however, were very unequal in extent and power. The five great states of Russia, Prussia, Austria, France and Great Britain, held dominion over more than three fifths of the territory, and nearly three fifths of the population of Europe. The eight secondary states of Sweden, Denmark, Poland, the United Provinces, Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, and Turkey, embraced about one third of the territory, and one fourth of the population. The empire of Germany, consisting of a great number of small states, united under a common head, and the twelve small states of Italy made up the rest of the European commonwealth.

It was however but a small proportion of these powers, that were strictly independent, and at liberty to pursue an entirely voluntary course of policy. For example, Spain, Naples, Parma, Genoa, Venice, Switzerland and some of the German States,

were, by their situation or alliances, more or less dependent upon France ; the United Provinces and Portugal upon Great Britain ; Denmark and Sweden upon Russia ; the Northern German Princes upon Prussia ; the Southern—with Tuscany and other States of Italy—upon Austria.

This favourite distribution of territories, called the balance of Europe, was first disturbed by the annexations made to France. In September 1791, the king accepted the constitution, by which the ancient division of the kingdom into provinces was abrogated, and an entirely new division into eighty three Departments, which were subdivided into Districts and Cantons, was established in its place. The departments as then established, with few exceptions, remain to this day. At the same time, Avignon and Venaisin—enclaves in France, but a part of the temporal dominions of the Pope,—were united to France by the Constituant Assembly. Six years afterwards, these districts were regularly ceded by the Pope. A number of German Princes were also, by the same act of the Constituant Assembly, deprived of their feudal rights in land situated in France.

In September 1792, war was declared against Sardinia. Savoy was soon captured and annexed as the eighty fourth department ; and in the beginning of the year following, Nice and Monaco, also conquered from the king of Sardinia, were erected into the eighty fifth. These territories were, in May 1796, relinquished to France, by treaty. In 1793, the island of Corsica was formed into two departments, but in 1811, these were united into one. This island forms *one* department at this day. In the beginning of the year 1793, the French armies advanced into the Netherlands, and the National Convention issued decrees annexing several of the Austrian Provinces to the Republick, but the French troops were soon driven within their own frontiers by the Austrians and Prussians, and these decrees were never carried into execution. In the year following, however, the French, after the battle of Fleurus, advanced rapidly into the Netherlands, and made a permanent conquest of the whole country. In the year 1795, the whole Austrian possessions on the left of the Rhine, and some small districts ceded by the Batavian Republick, were, by decree of the National Convention, formed into nine departments, and formally united with France. These possessions were finally ceded by Austria, two years afterwards, at the peace of Campo Formio, and have never since reverted to her.

In the year 1798, the city and territory of Geneva were by treaty united with France, and, with the north part of Savoy, formed into a department. The same year, the island of Malta was conquered by Buonaparte, and ceded by the Knights of St. John to the French Republick. This island was, however, soon afterwards conquered by Great Britain, and is holden by that country to this day.

By treaty with the king of Prussia, in 1795, France was allowed to remain in possession of the territories on the left of the Rhine, until the boundary should be settled at a general peace. By the treaty of Luneville, in 1801, the Thalweg of the Rhine, from its leaving the Swiss territory to its entering the limits of the Batavian Republick, was recognized as the boundary between France and Germany. Soon afterwards, the country on the left of the Rhine, thus severed from Germany, including the Electorate of Treves and Cologne, part of the electorate of Mentz, and some other small states, was formed into four departments, and declared an integral part of the French Republick.

In 1802, the island of Elba, which had been the year before ceded by the grand duke of Tuscany, and the king of Naples and Sicily, was annexed to France, with the right of sending a delegate to the legislative body, and having its government administered by a commissioner, though not considered as a department. The same year, Piedmont, which had been for several years provisionally under the government of French military officers, was erected into six departments, forming the twenty seventh military division, and received into the body of the republick.

In May 1804, France dropped the name of a Republick, and received Buonaparte as emperor; and soon after, the other European Republicks, formed under French auspices, began to disappear from the list of nations. The Ligurian Republick was in July 1805, at its own request, admitted as a member of the empire, and, with a part of the Piedmontese territory, formed into three new departments. In this arrangement, one of the departments, lately formed from Piedmont, was suppressed.

In December 1807, the Duchy of Tuscany, which had for a few years borne the name of the kingdom of Etruria, and in May following the Duchy of Parma and Placentia, which had, for some years, been under a French provisional government, were annexed to the empire, and formed into four departments.

The next new department was formed in the interior of France, by a new organization of some of the old departments.

In May 1809, by a decree issued at Vienna, the Papal states, which had been for some time in possession of French troops, were declared united with the empire, and soon after, a special commission, appointed by Buonaparte, took into their hands the administration of the government at Rome. In February following, they were definitively formed into two departments. The city of Rome was declared the second city of the empire, and entitled to special privileges. The Prince imperial was to receive the title of King of Rome, and a Prince of the blood, or grand dignitary, was to reside at Rome, and hold there the emperor's court. In July of the same year, a decree was issued uniting Holland with France, and in December following, by a *senatus consultum*, Holland, the Hanse Towns, the Duchy of Lauenburgh, and a tract of territory, extending from the Rhine to the Baltick, including the Duchy of Oldenburgh, Aremburg, and Salm, and embracing the mouths of the Ems, the Weser and the Elbe, were definitively united with the empire, and formed into twelve departments. About this time, also, the little Swiss Republic of the Valais, was made a French department; and, in the year following, a further encroachment was made upon the German territories, by taking from the new kingdom of Westphalia, the bishoprick of Munster, and establishing the one hundred and thirtieth department, called the Lippe. This was the last annexation to the territories of France. The additions, thus made in the space of twenty years to France, were equal in extent and population to one half the original kingdom.

Besides the territories thus incorporated with the empire, the countries on the Adriatick, detached from Austria at the peace of Vienna in 1809, were erected into a separate government, under officers appointed by the emperor, and called the Illyrian Provinces.

The Austrian monarchy was during this period involved in several bloody wars, nearly all of which terminated in some important territorial changes. The emperor, at the commencement of it, had, by his projects of aggrandizement and schemes of reform, excited great jealousy among his neighbours, and disaffection among his own subjects. The low country provinces, in the year 1789, openly revolted and declared themselves independent, under the name of the *Belgick United States*, but the year after, they were obliged to return to their allegiance,

On the other side, the emperor had succeeded in taking Belgrade from the Turks ; but in 1791, he was induced to make peace with the Porte, relinquishing all his conquests ; and the Austrian frontier has not been extended on the side of Turkey from that day to this. In the year 1792, the Austrian Netherlands were overrun by the French, in the year following were recovered by Austria, and in 1794 were finally conquered by France. In 1795, on the final division of Poland, Austria received a second portion of the territories of this country, which was annexed to Galicia. This acquisition embraced twenty thousand square miles of territory, and a population of two and a half millions. In 1796, the Austrians were driven from their possessions in Italy, and in the year following the emperor relinquished by treaty the whole of the Netherlands, and Austrian Lombardy, consisting of the Duchy of Milan and Mantua. He also consented on his part, and engaged to use his endeavours to gain the consent of the empire, that the French Republick should extend its boundary to the Rhine. He consented to the annexation of the Duchy of Modena to the Cisalpine Republick, and engaged to give the Brisgaw to the Duke as an indemnity, to be holden by him on the same terms as he had holden Modena. He was permitted, however, in return, to annex to his dominions, the city and the greater part of the territories of Venice. By this treaty, Austria lost a population of three and a half millions, and the territories received in exchange contained a population amounting to about half that number.

In 1801, by the treaty of Luneville, Austria gave up a small part of her Venetian territories, and accepted the Thalweg of the Adidge as the southern boundary. In 1804, the emperor Francis II. assumed the title of Hereditary Emperor of Austria, with the name of Francis I. ; and two years afterwards, renounced the title and prerogatives of emperor of Germany. After the disastrous campaign of 1805, which was terminated by the peace of Presburgh, the emperor was compelled to give up all the Venetian states, which were then united by Buonaparte to the kingdom of Italy. He also ceded to the king of Bavaria, the Margraviate of Burgau, the Principality of Eichstedt, part of Passau, the county of Tyrol, the Voralberg, and other territories. To the king of Wurtemburgh he ceded the five cities of the Danube, with their dependencies, the county of Hohenburgh, the Landgraviate of Nellenburg, the Prefecture of Altorf, and the part of the Brisgaw, enclaved in

Wurtemburgh. The rest of the Brisgaw, he ceded to the Elector of Borden, together with the Ortenau, the town of Constance, and Minau. By this treaty, the countries of Saltzburg and Berchtolsgaden, were united to the Austrian empire, in exchange for which, the emperor of France engaged that Bavaria should cede to the Elector of Saltzburg, the Principality of Wurtzburgh. Austria, by this treaty, was entirely excluded from Italy, and cut off from access to the ocean, except by her single port of Trieste. She also relinquished twenty five thousand square miles of territory, containing a population of two and a half millions of souls.

The next war, in which she was engaged, was still more fatal to her. By the treaty of Vienna, in 1809, Austria ceded to the emperor of France, Saltzburg and Berchtolsgaden, with a part of the Archduchy of Austria, the Ob der Ens, Gorz, Carniole, the city and territory of Trieste, Monfalcone, part of Carinthia and Croatia, Fiume, and the Littorale, Istria, with the neighbouring islands, and the whole territory south of the river Save;—to the king of Saxony, the Bohemian enclaves in Saxony, and West Gallicia; with Zamosc, and a circle about Cracow in East Gallicia;—and to the emperor of Russia, a part of East Gallicia to contain a population of four hundred thousand souls. The provinces, thus dismembered from Austria, contained an area of more than forty thousand square miles, and a population of more than three millions of souls. These successive reductions of the power and resources of Austria, together with the derangement of her finances, occasioned by her efforts to retrieve her losses, threatened to reduce her to a power of the second order.

Prussia, at the commencement of this period, remained nearly in the situation, in which she was left on the death of Frederick the Great. Her sovereign was more fond of pleasure than of business, and, in consequence, the country was not harassed by schemes of conquest. In the beginning of the year 1793, however, the king having formed a concert with the empress of Russia, for making a farther partition of Poland, took possession of Thorn and Dantzic, two cities, which, at the former treaty, had been expressly reserved to Poland. He soon afterwards issued a declaration, stating that the internal dissensions of the republic rendered his interference necessary, and describing certain portions of the Polish territory, of which he intended to take possession. In September of the same year, the King and Diet of Poland were compelled to execute a treaty,

ceding to the king of Prussia the cities of Thorn and Dantzic, with the other territories, which he had demanded ; and in 1795, by the convention between Russia, Prussia and Austria, by which the final distribution of Poland was confirmed, in conformity with the previous declaration of these powers, the territories thus ceded, with a small addition, were guaranteed to the kingdom of Prussia.

In the year 1795, after an unsuccessful campaign against France, in which the Prussian and allied troops were driven across the Rhine, the king of Prussia, by treaty, relinquished to his enemy all his possessions on the left of that river, until their fate should be settled by a general peace with Germany. In the beginning of the year 1806, by a treaty signed at Vienna, Prussia ceded to France the Duchy of Cleves and the Principalities of Anspach and Bayreuth, in exchange for which, France ceded Hanover, belonging to Great Britain. Although this treaty involved Prussia in a war with Great Britain and Sweden, it was hardly carried into execution before hostilities with France became necessary. The war opened with the disastrous battles of Jena and Auerstadt ; and in a few weeks Buonaparte entered the Prussian capital and had in his possession half the kingdom. In a few months more, notwithstanding the vigorous efforts of Russia to assist his unfortunate ally, after the bloody battles of Pultusk, Eylau, Heilsburg and Friedland, the emperor of France possessed himself of the whole Prussian territories, except a few garrisons, and advanced to the very borders of Russia. But, by the treaty of Tilsit in July 1807, the old kingdom of Prussia, a part of Polish Prussia, the march of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Silesia, and half of Magdeburg, were restored to the king, who, by the same instrument, ceded to France all his states on the left of the Elbe, the circle of Coburg, the city of Dantzick, and nearly all his acquisitions in Poland. By this treaty, Prussia lost about half her territory, and more than half her population. In violation of the treaty, also, the greater part of the restored provinces remained in the military possession of France, until the time of the Russian war. The Polish provinces, taken from Prussia on this occasion, were formed into the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, and given to the king of Saxony ; and most of the German territories were afterwards formed into the kingdom of Westphalia for Jerome Buonaparte ; both of which new states became members of the Confederation of the Rhine.

Russia, on the breaking out of the French revolution, was

deeply engaged in schemes of aggrandizement. The Empress Catherine had already, during her reign, added to her dominions a large part of Poland, the Crimea, and a tract of territory, which belonged to Persia. In 1792, this ambitious princess obtained a further cession from the Porte, of Okzawkow and Jedzan, extending from the Bog to the Dniester, which she had already conquered. In the year following, the second partition of Poland took place, on which occasion the empress took possession of Volhynia, Padolia, Kiew, and a part of Lithuania. In 1795, she annexed to her dominions, the Duchy of Courland, Semgalle, and Pilten, and on the final distribution of the remains of Poland, she made the further acquisition of the provinces of Wilna and Grodno. Nearly half the kingdom of Poland thus became annexed to the Russian empire. Besides these conquests of the empress Catherine, she acquired, by inheritance, the little principality of Jever in East Friesland. Her successor, Paul, during his short reign, added to his dominions only a small tract of territory from Persia, thinly inhabited and of little value.

Soon after the accession of the Emperour Alexander, in the year 1801, the Province of Guesia, or Georgia, belonging to Persia, was, by proclamation, incorporated with the empire. In 1806, the city and territory of Derbent, on the Caspian sea, became a part of Russia. In 1807, by the treaty of Tilsit, the Emperour Alexander relinquished the principality of Jever, but acquired in return the province of Bialystock, a part of Poland, which had fallen to the share of Prussia. This addition was made to Russia, under pretence of giving her a more natural boundary. In 1808, war was declared against Sweden. A Russian army immediately entered Swedish Finland, and that country was soon after declared a Russian province. In the year following, at the treaty of Fredericksham, the whole of Finland was ceded to Russia, and it has since become one of the fifty governments of the empire. In 1810, as a reward for having joined France in the war against Austria, which had terminated in a peace dictated by Buonaparte, Russia acquired, by treaty, a further portion of the territories of Poland, consisting of a part of old Galicia, which had before fallen to the share of Austria. In 1812, on the eve of the war with France, the Emperour Alexander, after having extended his conquests over nearly the whole of Moldavia, and part of Wallachia, suddenly made peace with the Porte, by which the river Pruth was established as the boundary on the side of

Turkey, and the province of Bessarabia, and part of Moldavia, were ceded to Russia. All the territories thus added to the Russian dominions, between the years 1789 and 1812, were more extensive than the whole German empire, but they contained a population of little more than seven millions of souls. The population of this country had besides, in the mean time, been enhanced several millions by natural increase. Russia, during this period, had become much better known. Several excellent works on Russian statisticks have been published, of which the works of Storch and Wichman are, perhaps, the most full and satisfactory. The population of the Russian empire, in 1789, instead of twenty two millions of souls, as it was usually estimated, undoubtedly exceeded thirty millions, and in 1812, it had grown to forty two millions.

Great Britain, during this period, in her European territories, suffered very little change. She was driven from her German possessions, and on the other hand she acquired by conquest the two small islands of Malta and Heligoland. Her conquests abroad were numerous and valuable. The Spanish island of Trinidad, and the Dutch possessions in Ceylon, which were taken by Great Britain before the treaty of Amiens in 1802, were confirmed to her by that treaty. Her other conquests of Pondicherry and the other French settlements on the coast of Coromandel, in India, of the Islands of Tobago, Martinique, St. Lucia, Curacao, St. Bartholomews, St. Croix, St. Martin, St. Thomas, St. John, St. Eustatia, and Saba, in the West Indies, Surinam and the Cape of Good Hope, were all restored to their original possessors at the peace of Amiens. On the renewal of the war, in 1803, Great Britain again took possession of St. Lucia, St. Pierre and Miquelon, Tobago, Demarara, and Essequibo; and in the year following, of Surinam. In 1806, she again conquered the Cape of Good Hope, and during the next year, the Dutch island of Curacao, and the Danish islands of St. Thomas, St. Johns, and St. Croix. She also took possession of Buenos Ayres, Monte Video, and the island of Madeira, but these places were soon after restored to their former proprietors. In 1809, she conquered the island of Martinique; in 1810, Amboyna, the island of Bourbon, and the Isle of France, and in 1811, the Island of Java. These conquests put under the dominion of Great Britain nearly all the foreign possessions of her enemies.

Sweden lost by conquest, in 1807, the German province of

Pomerania, and the island of Rugen, and, the year following, Finland. These losses deprived her of more than a third part of her territory and nearly a third part of her population.

Denmark lost the little island of Heligoland and her possessions in the West Indies and South America.

Poland, in 1791, formed a new constitution with a view of asserting her entire independence. This new government was called a republick, and possessed many of the features of the American constitutions. It retained, however, a hereditary head, with the title of king. The new constitution did not put an end to internal dissensions; and these, with the solicitations of the disaffected, furnished a pretence for the interference of the Russian empress and the king of Prussia. These two powers, in the beginning of 1793, took possession of certain Polish provinces, contiguous to their own dominions, and a few months afterwards the diet were compelled by military force to ratify treaties, ceding to these two powers the provinces, which they had severally seized. These cessions left to the republick but a third part of the original territories of Poland. The year following the people made a vigorous effort to recover their independence, and the integrity of the republick, but it proved unsuccessful. Kosciusko, their brave leader, after a variety of good and evil fortune, was defeated and taken prisoner, and the capital was taken by assault. In January 1795, the Russian ambassador, at Warsaw, declared to the foreign ambassadors there, that there no longer existed any kingdom or republick of Poland, and in November the king formally abdicated the throne. The courts of Russia, Prussia, and Austria agreed upon a division of the remaining part of Poland between them, and the part assigned to each was guaranteed to it by the others. The kingdom thus became entirely extinct.

The seven United Provinces of the Netherlands were, in the year 1795, entirely conquered by France. The principal part of the country, however, was restored on condition of the expulsion of the Orange family, and the abolition of the stadtholdership, and a new and more popular government was established in strict alliance with the French republick. Dutch Flanders was annexed to France. The ancient name of United Provinces was exchanged for that of the Batavian Republick, and under this name the country enjoyed the benefit of several successive new constitutions, each the fruit of some new revolution. In 1806, the Batavian Republick was con-

verted into the kingdom of Holland, and Louis Napoleon was elevated to the throne. By the constitution proclaimed on the occasion, the king was invested with the exercise of the government, and justice was to be administered in his name. A legislative body was established of thirty eight members. In 1808, East Friesland and Jever were given to Holland in exchange for a part of Walcheren, which was annexed to France. In 1810, Dutch Brabant, Zealand, and the territory on the left of the Waal, were ceded to France. The same year Louis resigned the crown in favour of his eldest son, and soon after, by a decree of the emperor, and a senatus consultum, the whole kingdom of Holland was annexed to France, as an integral part of the empire. Amsterdam was declared the third city of the empire. This ancient republic thus became entirely extinct.

The thirteen cantons, with their associates and allies, called the Republic of Switzerland, had subsisted almost without any territorial or political change for nearly three centuries. The prevalence of revolutionary principles invited the French to invade the country in 1798, and nineteen states,—which had all been accustomed to the privilege of self government, and differed radically from one another in their modes of government, as well as in their habits and institutions, some of them being aristocratical, others democratick, and others monarchical, and which were only bound together by treaties, without acknowledging any common head,—were constrained to unite as a single republick, under a representative constitution, one and indivisible. The Helvetic Republick remained for five years the sport of factions, and exhausted by civil wars, during which, a great number of schemes of government were successively adopted and rejected. In 1803, fifty six deputies were despatched to Paris, who under the mediation of Buonaparte, with the assistance of four French senators, nominated by him, formed a new federative act, by which a new constitution was given to each of the nineteen cantons, modelled in part upon the ancient forms of government of each, and a general constitution was established, by which the whole were united in one confederation, with a general diet at the head of it. This constitution was immediately adopted. Its regulations were enforced, and quiet was preserved, by the sword of the mediator, so long as his power lasted. Geneva, the Valais, and Neufchatel, however, in the mean time were severed from the confederacy.

Spain, in the the year 1795, was obliged to purchase the restoration of a part of her territory, (conquered by the republicans of France,) by the cession of her possessions in St. Domingo. In 1800, she ceded the province of Louisiana to France, which power, in April 1803, transferred it to the United States. In 1801, she invaded Portugal, and at a peace, made soon after, obtained a cession of the fortress of Olivenza, with its territory, by which her boundary was extended in that quarter to the river Guadiana. In May 1808, King Charles IV, after having abdicated the throne in favour of his son Ferdinand, and again resumed it, transferred the crown of Spain to the Emperour Napoleon, and to confirm the title of the latter, all the Spanish princes made a formal release of their claims. In June, Napoleon placed the crown on the head of his brother Joseph. These transactions were not confirmed by the Spanish nation, and a war ensued between the people of Spain, (under governments voluntarily formed by them,) and France, which continued until the fall of Buonaparte. Most of the American provinces of Spain, in the mean time, formed temporary governments for themselves.

Portugal,—though several times overrun by the French armies,—with the exception of the cession of Olivenza, by the help of Great Britain preserved the integrity of her European territories ; but in November 1807, the royal family withdrew from Lisbon, the ancient capital, and established the royal court at Rio Janeiro in America. By this important event, Brázil, since raised to the dignity of a kingdom, has become the seat of the government, and the mother country is degraded to the rank of a province. A part of Portuguese Guiana, ceded to France, was recovered at the peace of Amiens.

Turkey suffered a considerable diminution of her territory by the cessions to Russia in 1792 and 1812. Her sway over parts of her territory has also been disputed by the Servians, the Wechabites, and several Pachas. Her influence in European politicks has consequently been much reduced.

The theatres of the greatest changes,—the German empire, and the states of Italy,—remain yet to be noticed. To these however we can devote but a moment's attention. The states, which composed the empire, were to most purposes sovereign states, and stood nearly in the same relations to one another with the other states of Europe. They had been becoming more and more independent of one another, ever since the peace of Westphalia ; yet they remained under a common su-

preme head, and the unity of the empire was preserved in the Aulic council at Vienna, in the perpetual diet of plenipotentiaries from the different states at Ratisbon, and in the Imperial Chamber, constituting ~~a~~ a sort of law court for the empire, at Wetzlar. Although the decisions of these tribunals were slow, and extended to but a few of the objects of government, yet their authority was acknowledged by every member of the empire. We cannot go into a minute history of the destruction of this ancient fabrick. In the year 1806, a confederacy was formed, under the auspices of the French emperor, called the confederation of the Rhine, consisting of the southern German princes, and those on the Rhine, who then withdrew themselves from the empire. The Emperor Francis, upon this event, laid down the elective imperial crown of the holy Roman empire, and absolved all the members of the empire from the allegiance which they owed him in that capacity. The emperor had two years before taken the title of Hereditary Emperor of Austria, which has been recognized by all the powers of Europe. With the exception of the Hereditary states of the Emperor of Austria, and those of the king of Prussia, all the states of Germany, together with the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, soon after this date became members of the Rhenish confederation. Buonaparte was acknowledged as the head of the confederation, by the title of Protector, and by the articles of the league, each state was bound to furnish a certain contingent of troops, for every war in which France should be engaged. Four of the states of this confederation were raised by Buonaparte, to the dignity of kingdoms, and several others received the title of Grand Duchy.

In Italy every thing was changed. The Duchies of Savoy and Piedmont, which formed the principal part of the territories of the king of Sardinia, became extinct by the annexation of these territories to France. The republic of Genoa, in the year 1797, was formed into a new government, under the protection of France, with the name of the *Ligurian Republic*. In 1805, the whole country was annexed to France. The king of Sardinia continued to reign over the island, from which he derives his title; the population of which amounted to about a sixth part of the inhabitants of all his hereditary dominions. The Duchy of Parma, also, became extinct, by being merged in the French empire. The Grand Duchy of Tuscany was seized by Buonaparte, in the year 1801, erected into a kingdom, and given to the prince of Parma, son of the duke of

Parma, in exchange for the Duchy of Parma, which was ceded to France. The new kingdom received, on this occasion, the classical name of Etruria. After having enjoyed the regal dignity about seven years, the kingdom of Etruria, in the year 1807, became extinct, by being annexed to the French empire. The republic of Lucca was, in the year 1805, erected into a principality, and given by Buonaparte to his brother-in-law and sister, and together with the principality of Piombino, before given to them, remained under their government as a dependency of France. The Ecclesiastical states, besides Avignon and Venaisin, were, in the year 1797, dismembered of the legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna, embracing more than a third part of all the subjects of the Pope. In 1798, the Holy City became the seat of a new government, called the *Roman Republic*. But the pope soon after resumed his government, and continued to exercise it over the remaining portion of his states for about ten years. In 1808, a French army took possession of Rome, and put an end to the temporal power of the Pope. The eastern part of his dominions was incorporated with the kingdom of Italy, and in 1810, the western part, including the capital, was annexed to the French empire, the limits of which were thus extended to the Appennine mountains and the borders of Naples.

In the year 1797, Buonaparte,—after driving the Austrians from their possessions in Italy, called Austrian Lombardy, and consisting of the Duchies of Milan and Mantua,—by proclamation, in the name of the French republic, declared them free and independent, under the name of the *Cisalpine Republic*. About the same time, the ancient republic of Venice was conquered by Buonaparte, and entirely struck out of the list of nations. The greater part of her territory was given to Austria, in exchange for Lombardy and the Netherlands, and the remainder was annexed to the Cisalpine Republic. This new and favourite state was also increased by the annexation to it of the Ecclesiastical Provinces of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna, the Valteline, Chiavenna, and Bormio, and the Duchy of Modena. In 1802, this country received a new constitution, and with it the name of the *Italian Republic*. But in the year 1805, by a constitutional statute, the Italian republic was declared a kingdom, and Napoleon I, Emperor of France, was declared King of Italy. In the same year, by a decree of the emperor and king, prince Eugene was appointed Viceroy; and in the year following, by another

decree, he was adopted as the son of the emperor, and his successor to the crown of Italy, in default of natural children. The whole of the Venetian states were soon after annexed to the kingdom of Italy, as were also, in 1807, the territories of the republic of Ragusa. In 1808, the kingdom was farther increased, by the annexation of Ancona, Urbino, Camerino, and Macerata, a part of the States of the Church. Thus the whole of Italy, with the exception of the kingdom of Naples, became about equally divided between the empire of France and the kingdom of Italy.

The king of Naples and Sicily was driven from the continental part of his dominions in the year 1799, and the people, with the aid of a French army, established the *Parthenopean Republic*. The popular faction was, however, soon after suppressed; the French were defeated, and the king returned and resumed the government. But in 1806, the king was again compelled to withdraw his court to the island of Sicily, where he continued his reign under the protection of the British fleet. The crown of Naples was given by Buonaparte to his brother Joseph, who held it until he was transferred to the throne of Spain, when he was succeeded by his brother-in-law Murat, who, on this occasion, resigned the Grand Duchy of Berg. The island of Sicily, which remained in the possession of the old king, embraced about a quarter part of the population of his kingdom.

Thus, in the year 1812,—although Naples and Sicily were divided into two kingdoms, and the king of Sardinia maintained the royal dignity in a fraction of his dominions,—the number of states in Europe, estimating the Rhenish confederation as one, was reduced to sixteen. Of the twenty six sovereign states, into which Europe was divided at the commencement of the French revolution, six were now wholly, and two others principally absorbed in the empire of France, and three more were embraced in the kingdom of Italy. Besides swaying the sceptre over these two countries, Buonaparte had placed on the heads of a brother and a brother-in-law the crowns of two other kingdoms, and as protector of the confederation of the Rhine, and mediator of the Helvetic Union, he commanded the resources of Germany and of Switzerland. The countries, thus under his control, contained about half the population of Europe. The republics of Europe, including those, which owed their origin to the French revolution, had become entirely extinct, and their territories had fallen

under the most arbitrary governments. Switzerland was the only country, in which the form of a republican government was retained.

This change in the condition of the European world had been principally effected by the power of one man. On his fall, a counter revolution took place, founded on the general principle of restoring the old order of things. The territories, which had been seized by Buonaparte, were, in general, taken possession of by their former proprietors. But there were some cases, in which it was not possible to restore the old governments, and others, where it was not thought expedient to restore to existing governments, all their old possessions. The boundaries to be allowed to France, and certain general principles for the re-establishment of the European Commonwealth, were fixed at the peace of Paris in 1814, but the definitive settlement of conflicting claims was made at the congress of all the powers of Europe, except Turkey and Naples, convened either in person, or by their representatives, at Vienna. The arrangements made at this Areopagus of sovereigns were announced from time to time in the commencement of the year 1815, and immediately carried into effect. The deliberations of this congress were interrupted by the return of Buonaparte from Elba, which event hastened their decisions and rendered some change in their dispositions ultimately necessary.

By the peace of Paris, France was confirmed in the possession of the territories held by her in 1792, including Avignon, with the addition of part of Savoy, Montpellier, and some small districts of the Netherlands on the northern border. All the colonies of France were restored by Great Britain, except the Isle of France and its dependencies, and Tobago and St. Lucia. France restored to Spain the part of St. Domingo, ceded to her by the treaty of Basle. By the new treaty with France, made on the second restoration of the Bourbons, France retained its territory as it was in 1789, with Avignon, Montpellier, and the German enclaves; but ceded Savoy, the territory on the Belgian border, the four garrisons of Landau, Sarre-Louis, Marienburg and Philippeville, and the government of Monaco. The kingdom is now divided into eighty six departments. Her principal colonies are Martinique, Guadeloupe, French Guiana, the Isle of Bourbon, and Pondicherry, all of which were restored to her by Great Britain at the peace of Paris.

Russia, in 1813, made peace with Persia, and obtained a cession of Immerrette and Daghistan. In April 1815, by treaties with Prussia and Austria, confirmed by the general act of the congress of Vienna, the emperor acquired the greater part of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw,—with the title of Czar, king of Poland,—excepting, however, the part of the Grand Duchy lying westerly of the river Prosna, and a line drawn from the mouth of this river to near the city of Thorn, which was restored to the king of Prussia, under the title of the Grand Duchy of Posen. At the same time, Russia ceded back to Austria the part of Galicia acquired by virtue of the treaty of Vienna in 1809. The new kingdom of Poland was given to Russia, on the condition that it should enjoy a distinct administration, and the emperor Alexander has since given to it a very liberal constitution. The population of Russia, with these additions, amounts to about forty five millions of souls.

Prussia, besides the Grand Duchy of Posen, received back, of the countries ceded by the treaty of Tilsit, the city and territory of Dantzic, and nearly all her former possessions in Germany. To indemnify her for the principal part of her Polish possessions, now ceded to Russia, the king of Saxony was required to cede to her about half his kingdom, and she received besides a variety of other tracts of territory, principally situated on the Rhine, including the town and territory of Wetzlar, the Duchies of Berg and Cleves, most of the Bishopricks of Cologne and Munster, and the Duchy of Westphalia. The Prussian acquisitions on the Rhine were formed into the Grand Duchy of the Lower Rhine, and in consequence the king adds to his titles, that of Grand Duke. Since the dissolution of the Vienna congress, Prussia has made several exchanges, by which her territories are rendered more compact. They are now all contiguous, excepting that the Grand Duchy of the Rhine is separated from the rest of the kingdom by Hanover, through which the king of Prussia is entitled, by treaty, to maintain two military roads. Notwithstanding this division of the kingdom, the different provinces are much more compactly situated than formerly. The territory of the kingdom is not quite so extensive as it was in 1806, but its population is about the same. In exchange for two and a half millions of Polish subjects, transferred to the Emperor Alexander, the king has

acquired about the same number in Germany, besides receiving back those, who were formerly under his dominion.

The Emperour of Austria was recognized by the allied sovereigns,—in consequence of the renunciations in the treaty of Paris by France,—as legitimate sovereign of all the provinces and territories, which had formerly belonged to her, but which she had ceded by the treaties of Campo Formio, Luneville, Presburgh, and Vienna. Austria, therefore, entered again into possession of Austrian and Venetian Istria, Dalmatia, the Venetian Isles of the Adriatic, the city of Venice, and the Venetian territories on the left of the Adidge, the Duchies of Milan and Mantua, called Austrian Lombardy, the principalities of Brixen and Trent, the Tyrol, the Voralburg, Frioul, Montefalcone, Trieste, Carniola, Upper Carinthia, Croatia, on the right of the Save, Fiume and the Hungarian Littorale, and the district of Castua. The four circles of old Gallicia, ceded to Russia by the treaty of Vienna, were also restored. There were besides ceded to Austria, the Valteline, Chiavenna, and Bormio, which formerly belonged to the Canton of the Grisons, but were annexed by Buonaparte to the Cisalpine Republick. The territories, which formed the Republick of Ragusa, and some other small tracts of territory, were annexed to the Austrian dominions. The Italian provinces are placed under a distinct government, at the head of which is placed one of the archdukes, with the title of Viceroy. By an ordinance, published at Lemberg in May last, it was declared that Austrian Poland, under the name of the Kingdom of Gallicia and Lodomiria, should have a constitution of provincial states—the states to be formed of the clergy, two classes of nobles, and citizens. The population of Austria, at present, is about twenty eight millions.

Great Britain is reinstated in possession of the electorate of Hanover, which has been raised to the rank of a kingdom; and the King of Great Britain bears, in addition to his other titles, that of King of Hanover. Several transfers of territory have been made, much to the advantage of the new kingdom. The King of Great Britain, as King of Hanover, is a member of the Germanic confederation. Great Britain has also acquired the sovereignty of the Republick of the Ionian Islands, the internal government of which, however, belongs to the people of those islands. Heligoland and Malta also remain to Great Britain, as do the late French colonies of the Isle of France and its dependencies, and St. Lucia, Tobago

and the late Dutch colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Berbice, Demarara, and Essequibo. The other conquests of Great Britain, during the war, have been restored to their ancient proprietors. They have lately reduced to subjection the King of Kandy, and obtained the sovereignty of the whole Island of Ceylon. We have not spoken of the progress of the British dominion in India, because, in the short space we should be able to devote to it, we should not give any intelligible account of it. They have, however, either entirely conquered or made tributary to them, a great number of the native princes of that country, so that their dominion in India, either limited or absolute, embraces a population of forty millions of souls.

Sweden, by the treaty of Kiel, obtained from Denmark a cession of Norway, in exchange for Swedish Pomerania and the island of Rugen in Germany. This transfer the people of Norway attempted to resist, and, acknowledging Prince Christian, son of the King of Denmark, as their sovereign, declared themselves independent. They were, however, reduced by force, and a new constitution was accepted by the diet of Norway, by which the rights of the people are secured, and the kingdom is united with that of Sweden, under the same king, but to enjoy a separate administration, and to have its own legislature. By this constitution, the King has the right of raising armies, making war and peace, making treaties, and sending and receiving ambassadors. The acquisition of Norway is more than an equivalent to the king of Sweden for the loss of Finland. The laws prescribe the mode in which, when there shall be no presumptive heir to the crown, one may be named, who shall be entitled to the succession in the same manner as a natural heir.

Denmark transferred her new acquisitions of Pomerania and Rugen, which were remote from her other dominions, to Prussia, in exchange for that part of the Duchy of Lauenburgh, situated on the right bank of the Elbe, which Hanover had lately ceded to Prussia. This small Duchy affords but an imperfect compensation for the kingdom of Norway, yet, as it adjoins the Duchy of Holstein, it is a convenient and valuable appendage to the kingdom. These two Duchies make the King of Denmark a member of the Germanic confederation, and entitle him to a voice in the diet of Frankfort.

One of the most important features of the new constitution of Europe, is the erection of the new kingdom of the Nether

lands, consisting of the territories, which formed the Republick of the United Provinces, and the Belgic Provinces, commonly known by the name of the Austrian Netherlands, together with the Bishoprick of Liege. The crown of this kingdom is hereditary in the family of the late Stadtholder, and Prince of Orange. The constitution of government is modelled in some measure after that of Great Britain. The Duchy of Luxemburgh is annexed to this kingdom, by virtue of which, the king, as Duke of Luxemburgh, is a member of the Germanic Confederation. This kingdom is a very rich and populous country, though small in extent. The number of inhabitants exceeds five millions.

Switzerland has been newly organized. Three new states, or cantons—the Valais, Geneva, and Neufchatel—have been added to the confederacy, which now consists of twenty two members, and the whole have entered into a treaty with the allied powers, by which the latter acknowledge their independence, and guaranty their neutrality. Spain, Portugal, and Turkey have suffered no material territorial changes since the year 1812. Ferdinand VII. holds the crown of Spain by virtue of the abdication of his father, in 1808. He resumed the throne after the fall of Buonaparte, in 1814. The Prince of Portugal, who had been many years Regent, in consequence of the incapacity of the queen, obtained the acknowledgment of the Brazils as a kingdom in 1815, and in the year following, on the death of his mother, succeeded to the throne. The allied powers, by the act of the congress of Vienna, declared it reasonable, that Spain should restore to Portugal the city and territory of Olivenza, but Spain for a long time refused to comply with their recommendation on this subject. Portugal restored to France French Guiana, to the river Oyapock ; but, on the other side of her Brazilian dominions, a Portuguese army has taken possession of Montevideo, and that part of the Spanish Province of La Plata, north of the river La Plata. A review of the changes that have taken place in the Spanish Colonies, which have asserted their independence, we must reserve for some future occasion. We can here merely observe, that the Vice-royalty of La Plata, and the Captain Generalship of Chili, are the only provinces in which the king has not preserved some shadow of authority.

The German Empire has not been restored, but the Germanic Confederation has been established in its place. This confederation consists of the sovereign princes and free towns

of Germany, together with the empire of Austria, and the kings of Prussia, Great Britain, Denmark, and Netherlands, for their possessions in Germany. Its object is the maintenance of the security of Germany, and the independence and inviolability of the confederated states. The members are all equal in rights, and all are represented—the eleven larger states, individually, and the small states and free cities in six classes,—at the federative diet, in which the whole number of voices is seventeen. Austria, whose German states include a third part of the ancient empire, presides at the diet, but, in other respects, has but an equal voice. The diet is permanent, to sit at Frankfort on the Maine, and cannot adjourn for more than four months. It is entrusted with establishing the civil and political relations of the confederated states, and with the defence, not only of Germany in general, but of each individual state. The diet has been recently employed in fixing the military establishment of the confederation. The whole number of the inhabitants of Germany is about twenty nine millions, but nearly two thirds of these are under the dominion of Austria, Prussia, Great Britain, Denmark and the Netherlands, a principal part of whose territories are out of the limits of the ancient empire. The number of other princes and cities, recognized as sovereign, is thirty three, and the population amounts to about ten millions. The states of three of these, Bavaria, Saxony and Wurtemburgh, are styled kingdoms—the others are known by titles of a lower rank. The offices of emperour and elector are become extinct, and the division of the empire into circles is entirely obsolete. Many of the individual states have suffered considerable changes. The King of Saxony has been punished for his adherence to Buonaparte, by being deprived not only of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, but of half his hereditary states. Saxony is now the smallest kingdom in Europe.

The present political condition of Italy is easily understood. Lombardy and Venice, with nearly the same boundaries as when they were possessed by Austria and the Venetian Republic in 1789, now belong to the Austrian empire, and are under a distinct administration. The Duchy of Tuscany,—which from the year 1801, until it was incorporated with France, bore the name of Kingdom of Etruria,—returned in consequence of the peace of Paris, to Ferdinand III. who succeeded his father Leopold II. in 1790. His title has since been augmented to that of Grand Duke. The Duchy of Modena re-

turned, at the peace of Paris, to the family of the late Duke of Modena, who was expelled from Italy on the establishment of the Cisalpine Republick.

The Duchy of Parma and Placentia, instead of returning to the Spanish line, was given at the peace of Paris to the Archduchess Maria Louisa, wife of Napoleon Buonaparte, and her son. But in exchange for Parma and Placentia, the Duchess of Parma, also named Maria Louisa, widow of the late prince royal of Parma, afterwards King of Etruria, was invested by the allied sovereigns, with the Duchy of Lucca. This Duchy consists of the territories of the ancient republick, which Buonaparte gave as a principality to one of his sisters. Piedmont and Savoy are restored to the king of Sardinia, and the ancient republick of Genoa is made a part of the same kingdom. The States of the Church have been restored, with the exception of some inconsiderable tracts of territory in France and on the left bank of the Po. The kingdom of Naples, by treaty with Austria made a short time before the fall of Buonaparte, was guaranteed to Murat, but this treaty was broken by his hostile movements in the beginning of the following year, and the kingdom was soon after restored to Ferdinand IV. the old king of the Two Sicilies. The little republick of St. Marino, preserves its existence, and is the eighth and last of the states of Italy.

The only European state, which remains to be mentioned, is the free city of Cracow. This Polish city, at the partition of 1795, fell under the dominion of Austria, with the province of West Gallicia. At the peace of Vienna, in 1809, it was annexed to the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. But by the act of the congress of Vienna, it was declared permanently a free, independent, and strictly neutral city, under the protection of Russia, Austria and Prussia. In May 1815, a treaty was entered into by these three powers, in which the privileges to be enjoyed by this city, and the conditions, on which it receives its independence and neutrality, are particularly described. The inhabitants of this new state are estimated at sixty one thousand.

The present number of independent states in Europe, including the little republicks of St. Marino, Cracow, and the Ionian Islands, and considering the Germanic Confederation as a single state, is twenty three. But two thirds of the inhabitants of Europe are subjects of the five largest states; and the other third are very unequally divided between the seven secondary states, the thirty three minor states of the Germanic Confed-

eration, the eight states of Italy, and the two republics of Cracow and the Ionian Islands.

Whether this distribution of power is likely to be permanent, and calculated to preserve the tranquillity of Europe, or whether the world has gained any thing in the hope of future security and repose, are interesting inquiries, which we are not able at present to pursue. We have only leisure to observe, that all the powers of the first order, except France, have increased in the extent of their dominions, population and resources ; but on the other hand, the small states are not so closely allied, and so intimately dependent on particular large states, as they were before the French revolution. Several of the states have acquired more natural and convenient boundaries, and their territories are in a less degree intermixed. The states of the first order, with the exception of Russia, are more nearly equal in power and resources than formerly, and Russia, the only apparently dangerous power, is remote from the small states whom she would be most likely to bind to her yoke, and separated from the rest of Europe by the two states, who have the strongest interest, and are the most able to keep a check upon her ambition. On the whole, there does not appear to be any thing in the present distribution of power, which ought to discourage the hope of a long period of security from the miseries of conquest and revolution. There is no one sovereign, who can, with any rational confidence, aspire to universal dominion, or even any material increase of his power. On the contrary, if the several states act from a principle of enlightened self interest, or even of prudent ambition, it is not in the power of any one of the number, to assume more than his part in the political system, or to disturb the general welfare. No political arrangements can afford a security against the disasters to result from the future improvident or unprincipled administration of important states. It is sufficient for us, that there is nothing in the present political constitution of that portion of the world, on which the welfare of mankind most depends, which need excite in us any serious apprehensions of the renewal of those calamities, which have been lately brought to a close.

We might here proceed to give a review of the geographical changes in the United States, and of the improvements, which have been made in the knowledge of our own country. This would be a very interesting subject of inquiry, from the satisfactory progress we have made, and the flatter-

ing view, the inquiry would give of our resources and prospects. But the cursory review, we could at present give of the subject, would confine us to a recapitulation of what is within every one's knowledge. We proceed, therefore, to a more particular consideration of the work before us.

To form a proper estimate of the character of the work, we must first consider, what is its object, and how much it ought to accomplish. It is intended as a book of general reference, for information respecting places of every description in all parts of the globe. As it is designed for general use, it ought not to be expected, that the accounts of the different places should be very full, but facts should be judiciously selected, according to their importance to an American reader, and stated with precision. These should be drawn from the most authentic sources, and in all cases the most recent authorities should be consulted. Recent events should be stated more particularly than those of a remote period, because they are more likely to be objects of importance or curiosity to the reader. In all cases, the present state of the places described should be given as distinctly as possible. Countries, which have no present political existence, and occupy a place only in history, should be described in more brief and general terms than the states into which the world is now divided.

We have already declared our opinion of the industry and fidelity, with which this work, in general, is executed, and of the difficulties with which the author had to struggle. So far as he was furnished with materials in other geographical works, the labour of abridging, comparing and selecting appears to have been faithfully and judiciously performed. But in the state in which he found these works, we think it was incumbent on him to search farther, and to supply their imperfections from other materials. He should have carefully studied the history of Europe for the last thirty years, all the treaties, which have any concern with territorial changes, should have been consulted, and the statistical publications of the different countries examined. Crutwell's Gazetteer, which appears to have been made the ground work of the present publication, was tolerably accurate for the period when it was published, but nothing in the political world at that time was considered as on a permanent footing, and—probably in part for this reason, and in part for want of satisfactory information,—the late changes were stated by him in very brief and indefinite terms. In the present work, the changes since that date are in most cases either

not noticed at all, or are described still more indefinitely and imperfectly. We are aware of the great labour and difficulty of executing, in a satisfactory manner, this portion of the work, but the author, had he taken time for it, is fully competent to the task, and the publick will expect of him that in another edition of his book, he faithfully perform it.

We cannot go into particulars to explain the deficiency, which we complain of. It may be sufficiently understood when we say, that it would furnish little aid in drawing the outline of the changes in Europe, which we have presented in the preceding pages. When the changes are mentioned, it is often in too general and indistinct terms to render the information of much use. Whenever a district is detached from one country and annexed to another, we wish to be informed of the mode of the transfer, the date, and the amount of territory and population transferred. We have, in this work, but a very imperfect view of the reorganization of the European Commonwealth, on the fall of Buonaparte. Many changes are represented as the acts of the Vienna Congress, which were, in fact, but the resumption of territories by their former sovereigns on the termination of the power of the general usurper. The recent changes are not, in most instances, so particularly stated, as changes of less importance, made some centuries ago. The reader might reasonably expect, that a work of this size, published more than two years after the adjournment of the Congress of Vienna, should furnish, in preference to every thing else, the details of historical events belonging to the subject, which have taken place since the date of all other publications of the kind. It is to learn the present state of the world, in the particulars in which it differs from its condition as described in former publications, that this work will be most frequently consulted; yet it is in these particulars, in which it is most deficient.

By way of illustrating these objections, we copy from the work the article on *Saxony*, which we wish, however, should be considered as by no means a fair specimen of the general character of the work.

‘*Saxony*, kingdom, composed of the dutchy of Saxony, the greater part of the margravate of Meissen, a part of the Vogtland, and the north part of Thuringia, Lusatia, and a part of the country of Henneberg. The country abounds in grain, pulse, legumes, and fruit; hops, flax, hemp, tobacco, anniseed, woad, &c.; wine is

made in Meissen. The forests are considerable, which yield timber and pitch. Coals are found in several places, and the mines are of great importance; in which are found silver, copper, tin, lead, iron, cinnabar, quicksilver, antimony, bismuth, arsenic, different kinds of precious stones, as diamonds, topazes, rubies, amethysts, jaspers, &c. with quarries of various sorts of marble. The principal rivers are the Elbe, Elster, Mulda, and Saal. It is in general well cultivated, and populous; it contains upwards of 200 towns, and near 5000 villages. Saxony was the nursery of the reformation, introduced by Luther, which is now the prevailing religion. Ambition to be king of Poland induced the elector to become a Roman Catholic, but he engaged himself and successors not to introduce any alterations in the church, worship, ceremonies, universities, or schools. The arts and sciences are flourishing in Saxony, and the manufactures are numerous of thread, linen, porcelain, glass, cutlery, carpets, velvet, and muslins.—In the beginning of 1807, Saxony was erected into a kingdom, and Frederic Augustus IV. duke and elector, was crowned the first king. Saxony, without including Lusatia, is divided into seven circles and two bishoprics; the circles are those of Saxony, or the Electoral, Thuringia, Meissen, Leipsic, Erzgebirg, Vogtland, and Neustadt; the bishoprics are Merseburg and Naumburg. In 1792, by Hoeck's calculation, there were 2,104,320 inhabitants.

‘By the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, nearly one half the kingdom of Saxony was given to Prussia. The population, according to the present limits, is estimated at 1,183,000. Dresden is the capital.’

Although it is stated in the two last sentences of this article, that about half the kingdom has been ceded to Prussia, the general description refers, entirely, to the state of it before that cession was made, or rather, its condition fifty years ago, and there is nothing to show what parts of the country now remain to the King of Saxony. In fact, a very small part of the description, as applicable to the present kingdom, is correct. The whole of the Duchy of Saxony, Thuringia, the county of Henneberg, Lower Lusatia, and half of Upper Lusatia were, in May 1815, transferred to Prussia, and the King of Prussia was permitted, in consequence, to add to his titles, those of Duke of Saxony, Landgrave of Thuringia, Margrave of the two Lusatias, and Count of Henneberg. The river Saal flows through no part of the present Saxon kingdom, and of the seven circles mentioned above, the circle Electoral, Thuringia, and Neustadt, as well as the two Bish-

oprics of Merseburg and Naumburg, are entirely without the present boundaries. Saxony was raised to the dignity of a kingdom by the treaty of Posen, December 11, 1806, and was, by the same treaty, admitted to the confederation of the Rhine.

There are instances in this book, in which Duchies, Principalities, Bishoprics, and Lordships, are described as if now existing, which, in fact, have become extinct, and have no place but in history. There are frequent instances in which small tracts of territory, that have been transferred from one country to another, are set down to the country of which it has ceased to make a part. For example, Derbent is represented as belonging to Persia, and Bessarabia to Turkey, whereas, both are annexed to the Russian empire. The fortresses of Landau, Sarre Louis, Philippeville, and Marienberg, ceded by the last treaty of Paris, are, nevertheless, set down to France. The Island of Rugen, and the late Swedish Pomerania, which were ceded to Denmark in exchange for Norway, and afterwards by Denmark ceded to Prussia in exchange for the Duchy of Luneberg, are given as a part of the Danish territories. Of the successive transfers of Luneberg from Hanover to Prussia, and from Prussia to Denmark, there is no notice. These we give as examples of defects, which, although individually not very important, and although few, in proportion to the number of articles in the book, are yet so numerous as materially to diminish its value.

The revolutionary name *Etruria* is retained throughout the work, as designating the Grand Duchy of Tuscany. The name has properly no place in modern geography or history, except as it is applied to that period of the history of Tuscany, when it was governed as a kingdom, by the house of Parma, between the years 1801 and 1808. Yet Leghorn is called, by Mr. Worcester, a city of Etruria.

We do not wish to dwell upon these small defects, in this work, because we have not time on the other hand, to point out its merits, which certainly preponderate. It contains a great mass of information, digested in a very compact form, and stated, generally, with precision and accuracy. It contains a vast number of articles, beyond what the common reader would suppose that the world could afford. Yet it ought not to be supposed, that these two volumes describe all the places in the world. To attempt this, would be an unavailing labour. The index to the Topographical and Military Map of Germa-

ny alone, in which each name occupies but half a line, fills two large and closely printed octavo volumes. It cannot, therefore, be expected that not merely an index, but a description of all the places in the world, should be embraced within a compass suited to the views of common readers. Still, these two volumes contain a greater number of names, than any work of the kind we know of, and these are generally selected with discretion.

Many of the articles, relating to this country, are evidently written from original materials, carefully collected by the author. It is in these articles, that the marks of his care and labour are most conspicuous. The descriptions of places here, are generally corrected, according to the changes that have taken place, to a very recent date. This remark, however, we cannot apply to the southern part of our continent. The work furnishes no account of the revolutions that have taken place in South America, nor have we observed a line to show that the Spanish provinces have not all remained quietly under the royal yoke. It, perhaps, does not come within the plan of the work to give an account of the civil wars that have distressed those countries; but the total, and apparently permanent changes of government in some of the provinces, and, indeed, all entire revolutions, might fairly have found a place in it. As a specimen of the articles, which appear to be entirely original, we extract the following.

• *Cambridge*, p—t. Middlesex co. Mass. S WNW. Boston. Lon. 71. 7. W. Lat. 42. 23. N. Pop. 2323. It is pleasantly situated on the river Charles, and contains, a court house, a jail, a state arsenal, a printing office, three houses of public worship—two for Congregationalists, and one for Episcopalians; and a celebrated University. The courts for the county are held alternately here and at Concord. The court house and jail are situated on Lechmere's Point, a mile from Boston, with which there is a connexion by a bridge across Charles river. One of the Congregational meeting houses is at the flourishing village, called Cambridge-Port, which is connected with Boston by another bridge across the same river.

• Harvard College, or as it is now usually styled, the University in Cambridge, was founded in 1638. It is very richly endowed, and with regard to funds, library, professorships, and various literary advantages, is the first institution of the kind in America. It has five large brick edifices, or halls, styled Harvard, Hollis, Stoughton, Massachusetts, and Holworthy Halls. Harvard hall contains the library, philosophical apparatus, museum, and cabi-

net of minerals. The others are appropriated to the accommodation of students. There is also a spacious and most elegant stone edifice, containing a chapel, dining halls, and lecture rooms. A large and expensive astronomical observatory is about to be erected on an eminence, to the east of these buildings. A botanical garden, which belongs to the institution, contains a very valuable and extensive collection of plants. The library contains about 20,000 volumes. The philosophical apparatus exceeds every other of the kind in America. There are belonging to the university, in its several departments, a president, 20 professors, and 4 tutors. The number of undergraduates is, at present, 280. The course of education requisite in order to obtain the first degree in arts, in this university, as in American colleges generally, is completed in four years.

The Theological Department has been lately organized on an extensive scale. Graduates of other colleges may be admitted to share in all the benefits of this institution. The regular course of instruction is completed in three years; and provision is made for the partial support of such students as may need assistance. The members attend public or private lectures of professors, on divinity, ecclesiastical history and church polity, pastoral duties, biblical criticism, natural theology, the septuagint, oriental languages, moral philosophy, intellectual philosophy, and pulpit eloquence.—The Law Department has likewise been lately organized and the new arrangements are expected soon to go into extensive operation.

‘The lectures of the medical department are principally delivered in Boston, where there has been lately erected, for the accommodation of this institution, a spacious and elegant edifice of stone, which contains a separate library of 4000 volumes. In this department there are 6 professors, who deliver lectures on materia medica, anatomy, surgery, obstetrics, theory and practice of medicine, chemistry and botany.’ *Willard Phillips—W Phillips—*



ART. IV.—*Readings on Poetry.* By Richard Lovell Edgeworth, and Maria Edgeworth. Boston; Wells & Lilly, 1816.

THE character of different periods of society varies almost as much as the seasons, and, perhaps, to the same uses. It has its times of darkness and storms, when the violent passions are abroad, and the milder affections are beaten down, and lie broken and perishing. But the seeds of good feelings do not decay, nor do the fast and strong roots of principle turn to rottenness. The gloom passes off, and the attachments